# Optimizations for Parallel Object-Oriented Frameworks

F. Bassetti K. Davis D. Quinlan

This paper was prepared for submittal to the

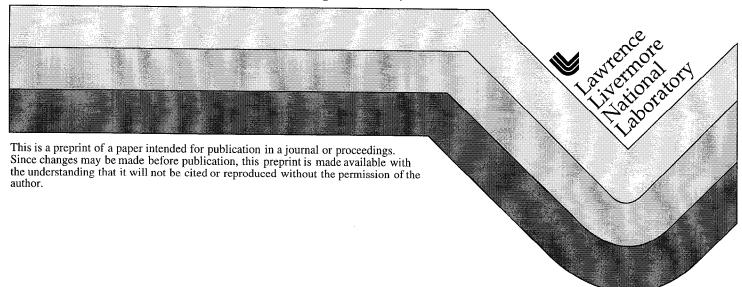
Society for Industrial and Applied Mathematics

Workshop on Object-Oriented Methods for Inter-Operable Scientific Computing

Yorktown Heights, NY

October 21-23, 1998

# **September 22, 1998**



#### DISCLAIMER

This document was prepared as an account of work sponsored by an agency of the United States Government. Neither the United States Government nor the University of California nor any of their employees, makes any warranty, express or implied, or assumes any legal liability or responsibility for the accuracy, completeness, or usefulness of any information, apparatus, product, or process disclosed, or represents that its use would not infringe privately owned rights. Reference herein to any specific commercial product, process, or service by trade name, trademark, manufacturer, or otherwise, does not necessarily constitute or imply its endorsement, recommendation, or favoring by the United States Government or the University of California. The views and opinions of authors expressed herein do not necessarily state or reflect those of the United States Government or the University of California, and shall not be used for advertising or product endorsement purposes.

# Optimizations for Parallel Object-Oriented Frameworks \*

Fede Bassetti<sup>†</sup>

Kei Davis<sup>†</sup>

Daniel Quinlan<sup>‡</sup>

#### Abstract

Application codes reliably under perform the advertised performance of existing architectures, compilers have only limited mechanisms with which to effect sophisticated transformations to arrest this trend. Compilers are forced to work within the broad semantics of the complete language specification and thus can not guarantee correctness of more sophisticated transformations. Object-oriented frameworks provide a level of tailoring of the C++ language to specific, albeit often restricted contexts. But such frameworks traditionally rely upon the compiler for most performance level optimization, often with disappointing results since the compiler must work within the context of the full language rather than the restricted semantics of abstractions introduced within the class library. No mechanism exists to express the restricted semantics of a class library to the compiler and effect correspondingly more sophisticated optimizations.

In this paper we explore both a family of transformations/optimizations appropriate to object-oriented frameworks for scientific computing and present a preprocessor mechanism, ROSE, which delivers the more sophisticated transformations automatically from the use of abstractions represented within high level object-oriented frameworks. We have found that these optimizations permit improved performance over FORTRAN 77 by factors of three to four, sufficiently interesting to suggest that higher level abstractions can contain greater semantics and that the greater semantics can be used to drive more sophisticated optimizations than are possible within lower level languages.

#### 1 Introduction

Application codes reliably under perform the advertised performance of existing architectures, compilers have only limited mechanisms with which to effect sophisticated transformations to arrest this trend. Compilers are forced to work within the broad semantics of the complete language specification and thus can not guarantee correctness of more sophisticated transformations. Object-oriented frameworks provide a level of tailoring of the C++ language to specific, albeit often restricted contexts. But such frameworks traditionally rely upon the compiler for most performance level optimization, often with disappointing results since the compiler must work within the context of the full language rather than the restricted semantics of abstractions introduced within the class library. No mechanism exists to express the restricted semantics of a class library to the compiler and effect correspondingly more sophisticated optimizations.

In this paper we explore both a family of transformations/optimizations appropriate to object-oriented frameworks for scientific computing and present a preprocessor mechanism,

<sup>\*</sup>http://www.llnl.gov/casc/Overture

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>†</sup>Scientific Computing Group (CIC-19), Los Alamos National Laboratory, Los Alamos, NM.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>‡</sup>Center for Applied Scientific Computing, Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory, Livermore, CA.

ROSE, which delivers the more sophisticated transformations automatically from the use of abstractions represented within high level object-oriented frameworks. We have found that these optimizations permit improved performance over FORTRAN 77 by factors of three to four, sufficiently interesting to suggest that higher level abstractions can contain greater semantics and that the greater semantics can be used to drive more sophisticated optimizations than are possible within lower level languages.

In our current work we apply this technology to the A++/P++ array class, a serial/parallel array class for scientific computing. A++/P++ form the basis for the Overture Framework, an object-oriented framework for complex geometries and adaptive mesh refinement. The mechanisms we will discuss are central to portable performance of object-oriented frameworks on varying architectures (cache based architectures in particular), and are not specific to a particular framework.

Initial results have demonstrated that we can use the ROSE preprocessor technique to optimize the performance of array class code. These techniques are completely programmable in principle any transformation could be introduced the research issue then becomes one of defining transformations that are appropriate. Separate work on types of transformations have demonstrated transformations with performance 3.5 times that of the F77 semantically equivalent code (on the SGI Origin 2000). The ROSE preprocessor mechanisms clearly permits the introduction of much more general transformations than the non-programmable expression template mechanisms, and provide greater portability, without the extremely long compile times associated with expression templates. This paper presents our current results and evaluations of performance compared to alternative mechanisms such as C, F77.

# 2 A++/P++ Array Class Library

A++ and P++ [?] are array class libraries for performing array operations in C++ in serial and parallel environments, respectively. The use of P++ is the principle mechanism by which the OVERTURE Framework operates in parallel.

A++ is a serial array class library similar to FORTRAN 90 in syntax, but not requiring any modification to the C++ compiler or language. A++ provides an object-oriented array abstraction specifically well suited to large scale numerical computation. It provides efficient use of multidimensional array objects which serves to both simplify the development of numerical software and provide a basis for the development of parallel array abstractions. P++ is the parallel array class library and shares an identical interface to A++, effectively allowing A++ serial applications to be recompiled using P++ and thus run in parallel. This provides a simple and elegant mechanism that allows serial code to be reused in the parallel environment.

P++ provides a data parallel implementation of the array syntax represented by the A++ array class library. To this extent it shares a lot of commonality with FORTRAN 90 array syntax and the HPF programming model. However, in contrast to HPF, P++ provides a more general mechanism for the distribution of arrays and greater control as required for the multiple grid applications represented by both the Overlapping Grid model and the Adaptive Mesh Refinement (AMR) model. Additionally, current work is addressing the addition of task parallelism as required for parallel adaptive mesh refinement.

Here is a simple example code segment that solves Poisson's equation with the Jacobi method in either a serial or parallel environment using the A++/P++ classes. Notice how the Jacobi iteration for the entire array can be written in one statement.

The use of complex parallel computers is so invasive to the development of high performance scientific software that some mechanism is required to encapsulate parallelism at some level in a general enough way to permit more productive application development. It seems clear that higher level abstractions would encapsulate parallelism at some lower level, it is a question as to how low a level it is appropriate to encapsulate parallelism within scientific computing. The use of array operations within an object-oriented framework for serial and parallel is natural and desirable and forms one of the lowest levels where parallelism can be encapsulated so that higher level abstractions can be built. At the same time it is one of the highest levels where parallelism can be encapsulated because lower levels of abstraction are not tied as directly to the large volumes of data present within arrays which typically form the basis of scientific computing (at least for finite difference and finite volume based applications). Also, with the development of array languages in the 1970's and the introduction of array abstractions in FORTRAN 90 most scientists are aware of the array abstraction already.

## 3 Alternative Program Models

The use of array objects as an abstraction within scientific computation while being relatively well understood (because of FORTRAN 90 Array abstractions) is not commonly seen as hiding an alternative more traditional and simpler programming model, the *local patch* model; the more explicit programming model of using simple local patches of contiguous data on a single processor to express an algorithm. The array abstraction is a higher level abstraction representing a collection of such local patch data; where it exists, on the collection of processors making up the entire machine. Of course within this model the communication is handled by the user but the development of the abstraction permits most such communication to be handled simply using a single function call (instead of a rather tedious number of MPI function calls).

The use of a parallel array abstraction does not preclude the use of the local data directly and in fact encourages this since it can be done only were it is perceived to be important instead of globally within a application code as would be required otherwise. The use of the lower level local patch model also permits the leveraging of existing serial and parallel application codes (older FORTRAN of C, serial or parallel kernels or applications). The performance of using the *local patch* abstraction is of course that of the FORTRAN or C it is written in, with absolutely none of the overhead introduced by the array abstraction. In this way we see how it is that both abstractions live comfortably together and how each may be used where appropriate.

The following example demonstrates these two programming models on a simple application code fragment:

• The Array Abstraction

```
doubleArray X(100);
```

```
doubleArray Y(100);
X = 1.0;
Y = 1.0;
Range I (1,98);
X(I) = ( Y(I+1) + Y(I-1) ) * 0.5;
```

In this code fragment using the array abstraction, notice that in the serial and parallel environments the source is identical. The communication is handled internally, with no more messages generated than in the explicit message passing programming model. In fact, since the message passing is hidden there is greater opportunity for optimizations specific to message latency hiding, the effect is to provide an automated level of optimization beyond that which would be provided in an explicit message passing model and which is architecture dependent, resulting in greater performance (something we will demonstrate later in this paper). Note that we seek to provide the user some refuge from the explicit message passing programming model to provide increased productivity, while at the same time making it accessible as required (because people write software and people are have different tastes, styles, biases, and requirements).

#### • The Local Patch Abstraction

Example code using the *local patch* programming model. Such code clearly operates at the efficiency of C, since it is C code. The communication at the ghost boundary (where the local data is partitioned across processors) is updated using simple function call, since the communication schedule is known more sophisticate optimizations are possible and which may well be architecture specific.

The two examples are semantically the same, but have different implementations to reflect the two different programming models. It should be clear that A++/P++ and the presence of the higher level array abstraction does not preclude the use of alternative (what we might consider more primitive) programming methods. It might be felt that this later local patch programming model is the right way to proceed if performance is to be preserved, but we will show just how throughly in error this assumption really is. Because the later example nails down the implementation so specifically as to provide no significant room for optimization and it is the optimization (an architecture dependent issue) that is the key to good performance.

#### 4 Relaxation as a case study

The case of local relaxation methods form an important part of elliptic solution methods particularly for multigrid methods. This work on optimization of relaxation methods is part of more general work on optimizations specific to multigrid for cache based architectures. Such solution techniques form important parts of more sophisticated application codes and a dominate the performance in many cases. The use of techniques to improve the performance of relaxation techniques and multigrid more specifically can be expected to play an important role in improving performance of such applications more generally.

The perceived truth about performance is that FORTRAN 77 compilers define it for any given algorithm. That for a particular code fragment such as we have shown, the FORTRAN 77 implementation and execution defines the upper bound of the performance. Where it is conceived that this may be in some doubt it is perceived to be at least almost true to within some marginal percentage That the FORTRAN 77 compiler could define, in even marginal limits, the performance potential is however quite in error. The reasons have to do with the potential of optimizations which the FORTRAN 77 compiler could not do because of the assumptions it could have to make and the minimal semantics that can be understood from the implementation.

#### 5 Temporal Blocking as an Optimization

These optimizations are described in greater detail in [?]. They form a specific instance of a more general optimization that originates in older out-of-core algorithms, main memory in this case is treated as slower storage (out-of-core), while cache is treated as faster storage (core). In this case we treat the instance of a stencil operation on a structured grid as a graph and define covers for that graph. The covers define localized regions (blocks) and form the basis of what we will define to be  $\tau$ -neighborhood-covers. In this case we introduce optimizations based upon these graph coverings. The  $\tau$ -neighborhood-covers are treated much like compiler blocking in the trivial case of  $\tau = 1$ , but provide greater temporal locality for values of  $\tau > 1$ .

The general idea behind applying this transformation to structured grid computations is to cover (block or tile) the entire grid by smaller sub-grids; solving the problem for each subgrid sequentially.

Let n be the number of grid points in a two dimensional square domain. Thus let A be a  $\sqrt{n} \times \sqrt{n}$  grid. Let the size of  $L_1$  cache be M. Now consider solving the linear relaxation problem for a subgrid S of size  $k \times k$ . In the first iteration, all the points in S can be relaxed. After the second iteration, points in the grid of size  $(k-2) \times (k-2)$  have the correct value. After continuing the procedure for  $\tau$  iterations, it follows that a subgrid of size  $(k-2\tau) \times (k-2\tau)$  has been computed up to  $\tau$  time steps. Thus we can now cover the  $\sqrt{n} \times \sqrt{n}$  by  $\frac{\sqrt{n} \times \sqrt{n}}{(k-2\tau)\times (k-2\tau)}$  which can be rewritten as  $\frac{n}{(k-2\tau)^2}$ . The total number of loads into the  $L_1$  cache is no more than  $k^2 \frac{n}{(k-2\tau)^2}$ . In order to carry out the relaxation for T time units, the total number of  $L_1$  loads is no more than  $k^2 \frac{n}{(k-2\tau)^2} \frac{T}{\tau}$ . By setting  $k = \sqrt{M}$ , and  $\tau = \sqrt{M}/4$ , we can obtain an improvement of  $O(\sqrt{M})$  in the number of  $L_1$  loads over a naive method (which would take O(Tn) time).

In practice, for the solution of elliptic equations using multigrid methods on structured grids,  $\tau$  is typically a small constant between 2 and 10 and thus the asymptotic improvement calculated above does not directly apply; nevertheless the analysis shows that we can get constant factor improvements over the naive method in terms of the memory access. and

the experimental results bear bear this out. The naive method we refer to here is the blocking introduced by the compiler. Of course less efficient methods could be proposed (e.g. local relaxation methods) which would permit significantly larger values of  $\tau$ , but these less efficient solution methods are not of practical interest, in the design of modern algorithms. The idea can be extended in a straightforward way to the cases when the value at a grid point is calculated by using not only the neighboring values but all neighbors that are a certain bounded distance away.

As demonstrated, temporal blocking can give a factor of two improvement in performance over compiler blocking. What has not yet been shown is the dependency of performance improvement on the number of iterations for a fixed block size. The goal has been to reduce the number of capacity misses to a negligible value. Figures 13 and 14 show the result of varying the number of iterations for a fixed block size for a problem that doesn't fit in secondary cache. The figures show that achieved performance improvement is not as good as predicted—performance improves with the number of iterations, but never exceeds a factor of two. At this stage the ideal performance is a crude estimate; in future this estimate will be improved. Figure 14 makes clear that the improvement factor is determined by the reduction in the number of misses. The figure shows that the achieved miss behavior is not relatively constant, but depends on the number of iterations. The problem appears to be an artifact of the test code, which assumes that the transitory array it is always resident in cache, which is ideally correct. The assumption is based on an implementation that ensures that there is always enough space in cache for the transitory array and a subset of the other arrays. The test code currently ignores the fact that permanent residency in cache for the transitory array cannot be guaranteed just by ensuring that there is always enough cache space for all the subsets of the arrays. Different subsets of the other arrays would map to the same locations as does the transitory array, resulting in a significant increase in the number of conflict misses. Various solutions are being evaluated under the assumption that there is still room for improvement before reaching some physical architecture-dependent limitations.

Figure x shows the use of this optimization in the serial environment to provide performance significantly better then FORTRAN 77. Since the implementation requires extra storage and is significantly more complex than the few lines of code that it replaces it is both not in the range of what the compiler could introduce (partly for lack of sufficient semantic knowledge about the lover level FORTRAN 77 code) and not readily introduced by the user (since the semantically equivalent transformation is 6 pages in size).

### 6 Message Latency Hiding as an Optimization

Can't be introduced at the local patch level of manipulation of the data.

Tests on a variety of multiprocessor configurations, including networks of workstations, shared memory, DSM, and distributed memory, show that the cost (in time) of passing a message of size N, cache effects aside, is accurately modeled by the function L+CN, where L is a constant per-message latency, and C is a cost per word. This suggests that message aggregation—lumping several messages into one—can improve performance.<sup>1</sup> Note that this sort of message aggregation does not require the packing and unpacking of multiple messages.

In the context of stencil-like operations, message aggregation may be achieved by widening the ghost cell widths. As a specific example, if the ghost cell width is increased

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Cache effects are important but are ignored in such simple models.

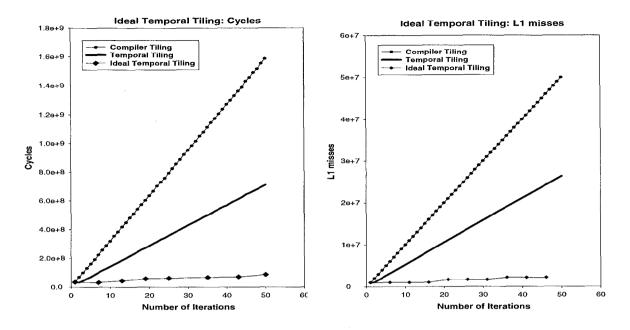


Fig. 1. Better Performance of temporal blocking (cycles == time).

Fig. 2. Better performance through fewer L1 misses.

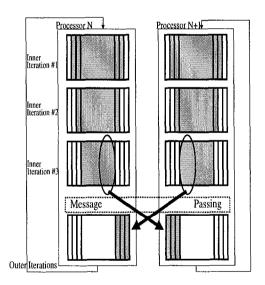


Fig. 3. Pattern of access and message passing for ghost boundary width three.

to three, using A and B as defined before, A[0..99,0..52] resides on the first processor and A[0..99,48..99] on the second. To preserve the semantics of the stencil operation the second index on the first processor is 1 to 51 on the first pass, 1 to 50 on the second pass, and 1 to 49 on the third pass, and similarly on the second processor. Following three passes, three columns of A on the first processor must be updated from the second, and vice versa. This pattern of access is diagrammed in Figure 1.

Clearly there is a tradeoff of computation for communication overhead. In real-world applications the arrays are often numerous and thus not as large as memory permits. Distributed across numerous processors the arrays become relatively small, with communication time exceeding computation time, and the constant time L of a message nearly matching or exceeding the linear time CN. Experimental results for a range of problem sizes and number of processors is given in Figure 2. Additional gains may be obtained by using asynchronous

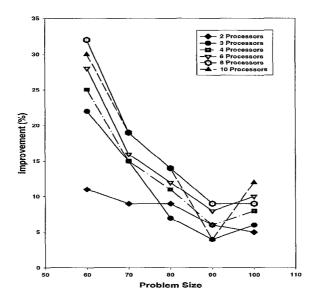


FIG. 4. Performance improvement of message aggregation as a function of problem size and number of processors (synchronous message passing) (results are mostly independent of ghost boundary widths (values of 2-6 are used)).

(non-blocking) message passing, which allows computation to overlap communication. Here the computation involving the ghost boundaries and adjacent columns is performed first, communication initiated, then interior calculations performed. Widening the ghost boundaries and so allowing multiple passes over the arrays without communication decreases the ratio of communication time to computation time; when reduced to one or less communication time is almost entirely hidden.

This is the principal mechanism for hiding message latency, but it also enables the more sophisticated cache based transformations (presented in the previous section) in the parallel environment.

#### 7 The Key to Superior Performance

For better or worse, the existence of many cache based optimizations require semantic knowledge (or program analysis) largely unavailable at existing FORTRAN 77 or C level languages. If this is too broad a statement consider that no compiler does such aggressive optimizations as we have presented.

The key to obtaining better performance is to permit more sophisticated optimizations. The key to having more sophisticated optimizations be used is to have them be introduced automatically through some mechanism. The key to knowing when such optimizations can be automatically introduced is to have a higher level of semantic knowledge about

a program. And since gleaning the semantics of the intended algorithm from its implementation in a low level language is too difficult, we suggest that if greater semantics is to be captured, the program should be written using higher level abstractions and that these abstractions be designed purposefully given specific optimizations. However, having the abstractions is not sufficient, some preprocessing mechanism with knowledge of the abstractions' semantics must be added to automate the optimizations. Many simple optimizations could be placed into the implementation of the abstractions themselves but these are not an important target of our work. The more relevant abstractions are the ones which interact and have possible optimizations given their context within loops and their interaction with one another (such as array abstractions in scientific applications).

It is not clear how far this approach toward high performance can be taken. It is clear that some dramatic examples can readily demonstrate this approach. The development of improved performance for relaxation techniques is just one example.

#### 8 Conclusion

In our alternative program models it was precieved that the *local patch* model was the better performance oriented solution but it is clear that the specific nature of its implementation does not provide sufficient room for either the message passing latency hiding optimization or the temporal blocking optimization and thus restricts its overall performance. Its implementation literally ties it to a specific style of execution and prevents the compiler from providing substantial optimizations (as if the compile could anyway). It is not the case yet that the ROSE preprocessor is finished or distributed so the final results are not certain. For the moment we can only form a guess what approach might be ultimately most productive.

Ultimately the programmer has to express the semantics of his/her algorithm, this is typically done by writing source code in one or more computer languages. When this is done in FORTRAN 77 or C the semantics of the algorithm in the programmers mind is lost and only the semantics of the language is saved for the compiler to see. From what the compiler sees, and from the programmers view point, the original algorithm's semantics can not be reconstructed (ignoring possible artificial intelligence work to accomplish this). The most fundamental step where information was lost that could have saved significant semantic information is the translation of the algorithm into software in the first place (the writing of the computer code). If at this level the translation had been to a language containing higher level semantics less of the algorithm's semantic might have been lost and more of it used to generate optimizations. Alas, we do not seek to build new languages, only to provide higher level abstractions to simplify the application development. It is a bonus, yet to be well capitalized upon, at this stage of the process to consider the optimizations that the higher level semantics can drive. To date, the possible optimizations for possible high level abstractions are not a part of the object-oriented design, but likely they should be. We have demonstrated some of the potential gain from this approach.

The algorithm's translation into higher level abstractions might be sufficient to preserve the intended semantics of the algorithm if the optimizations could be introduced at this level. Such would require a mechanism to recognize the higher level abstractions and generate automated optimizations. The mechanism we propose for this is a preprocessor, the responsibility of the preprocessor is to recognize the higher level abstractions and introduce optimizations based upon the context of their use within the application code. The preprocessor must know the semantics of the abstractions in order to introduce the

optimizations automatically. In the case of an object-oriented framework, this makes the preprocessing mechanism a component of the framework. The design of a high performance object-oriented framework is then guided by the design of objects with the intend of being optimized by existing optimizations. A good design of an object-oriented framework thus weighs the value of an abstraction and the semantics it represents against the semantics that is to be recovered by the preprocessor and is intended to help guide the optimization. The existing constraints to the object-oriented design have not had to include the possibility of optimizations beyond that which could be expected (or hoped for) by the compiler (very low level indeed and of marginal value in many cases for scientific applications).

In modern architectures access to cache memory is typically many times faster than to main memory (factors of 100 are common); the tradeoff (given constant dollar cost) is speed for size. The potential of these and other cache based transformations is directly dependent upon the relative cost of cache vs. main memory. Clearly, no cache is large enough to make a difference and this relative cost is increasing quickly with faster CPU and memory systems that fail to keep pace. The greater hope of phenomenal processing speeds in the future is largely held hostage by the relatively poor bandwidth to main memory (where the data is located and which scientific applications require) unless significant cache based transformations are automated. Our reward for tolerating this is ever deeper memory hierarchies to program amidst. The current poor state of the art in compiler technology to introduce these significant cache based transformations only hides this from us. The common perception that FORTRAN 77 performance is the best one can do is an example of this.

#### 9 Software Availability

The OVERTURE Framework and documentation is available for public distribution at the Web site http://www.llnl.gov/casc/Overture. A++/P++ dates back to its first version in 1990 and has been publicly distributed since 1994; the current version was released in 1996. The OVERTURE libraries have been under development since 1994, and have been available to the public since 1996. The AMR++ classes for adaptive mesh refinement in OVERTURE are still under development and are expected to be released in fourth quarter 1998.